DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 268 877 HE 019 242

AUTHOR Mark, Sandra F.
TITLE Gender Differences among Mid-Level Administrators. ASHE 1986 Annual Meeting Paper.
PUB DATE Feb 86
NOTE 36p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education (San Antonio, TX, February 20-23, 1986).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Characteristics; *Administrators; *College Administration; College Environment; Employment Practices; *Females; Higher Education; Leadership; *Middle Management; Organizational Climate; Personnel Policy; Research Methodology; *Sex Differences; Socialization; Vocational Adjustment; Work Attitudes
IDENTIFIERS *ASHE Annual Meeting; *Women Administrators

ABSTRACT

Gender differences among mid-level administrators in higher education is considered, based on a review of research. Attention is directed to research in three areas: (1) socialization of women and men to work and career patterns, (2) characteristics of higher education administrators, and (3) characteristics of the institutional climate and its effect on gender. Methodological issues and suggestions for future research are also addressed. Specific research concerns include: achievement motivation issues; leadership as an expression of achievement; factors that affect the socialization of women to work in high levels of the professions; number of women in higher education administration, where they are located, and what kinds of positions; demographic factors; perceptions and evaluations of their work; skills of mid-level managers; problems and issues; cultural spheres affecting academic life and the use of historical analysis to understand the power that brought about changes; an institution's internal personnel procedures for equity, selection, hiring, stereotyping, and mentoring; and how an institution deals with problems, issues, and changes. Methodological issues include: subjects, measures, kinds of comparisons, settings, demographic factors, and interaction between the role of culture and institution. Six pages of references conclude the report. (SW)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED268877

GENDER DIFFERENCES AMONG MID-LEVEL ADMINISTRATORS

by

Dr. Sandra F. Mark
Assistant Dean of Instruction
Corning Community College
Corning, New York 14830

Presented as part of a Symposium on Mid-Level Administrators in Academe: Analysis of Research Findings and Directions for Future Research

at the

1986 Association for the Study of Higher Education Annual Meeting, San Antonio, Texas, February 21, 1986.

HE 019242

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Sandra F. Mark

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

ASHE Association for the Study of Higher Education
The George Washington University/One Dupont Circle, Suite 630/Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 296-2597

This paper was presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education held at the Gunter Hotel in San Antonio, Texas, February 20-23, 1986. This paper was reviewed by ASHE and was judged to be of high quality and of interest to others concerned with the research of higher education. It has therefore been selected to be included in the ERIC collection of ASHE conference papers.

Gender Differences Among Mid-Level Administrators

by Dr. Sandra F. Mark

Strong cultural beliefs persist which suggest that gender plays a significant role in the exercise of administrative effectiveness. Increasingly, as women have assumed more administrative positions in higher education, questions arise regarding the degree to which such women "fit" existing models and expectations of administrative behavior.

In order to provide a framework toward a more complete model of gender differences among mid-level administrators in higher education, this review will focus on research in three areas:

1. Socialization of women and men to work and career patterns,
2. Characteristics of higher education administrators,
3. Characteristics of the institutional climate and its effect on gender.

A final topic will be methodological issues in gender differences research where the focus will be on what has been and should be studied.

Method

A number of sources were utilized for this review including the data bases for Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and Cumulative Index to Journals in Education (CIJE). Using the descriptors "sex-differences/administrators/college" the computer search yielded five articles for the period 1980 to the present. A search of the data base for Dissertation Abstracts International using the same descriptors for the same time period yielded thirteen dissertations. A search of the general business index, ABI/Inform, and the descriptors "Manage/College/Sex or Gender" yielded forty-two articles. Citations for authors known to have published work in this or related areas yielded an additional sixty works, in addition to fifteen other publications in higher

education to which I subscribe. A review of the data base for Psychology Abstracts using the three descriptors described did not yield additional citations. In addition, previous research by the author yielded another one hundred and fifty citations. The total number of articles, books, dissertations, and other published papers approximated three hundred references.

Theoretical Perspective and Analytical Framework:

Strong components of the references and my own background and training are in the area of social psychological research in general, and achievement motivation theories in particular. Social interaction theories contributed in important ways to my thinking, as well as the issues of the "problem of the match" from the developmental psychological research of Jean Piaget. Finally, nature of culture in educational and business organizations by Kanter and Dill were significant components of my analysis, as was the metatheoretical work by Wittig. My own perspective also comes from several years of experience as an academic administrator and former faculty member in community colleges.

Socialization of Women and Men to Work and Career Patterns:

Women have been socialized differently to the world of work compared to men (Mischel, 1970). For women, work outside the home and for pay usually had three purposes: (1) a temporary activity until marriage; (2) a supplement to the husband's income, or (3) a substitute for the husband's income when he was ill, unable to work, had died, or had left home. Traditionally, even for professional women, work was clearly secondary to their husbands' work and to their own traditional roles as wives and mothers (Bryce, 1969). For men, however, work has been, and today still remains, central to their lives. Men are expected to work, and work should provide them with purpose and self-definition as well as concrete rewards in income and status (Levinson, 1973). The research, in general, indicates that because men are expected to work and are socialized to be "breadwinners," they experience fewer internal conflicts and external

barriers to work than women. Their personal and professional roles of husband, father and "breadwinner" are harmonious, mutually reinforcing and consistent. Work as a primary motive for professional women, particularly those who marry, is not consistent with their traditional personal roles, and thus conflict may arise between their roles (Broschart, 1979; Horner, 1975). Professional women's socialization to work generally begins with parental expectations that although work and careers are important and highly regarded, they will always be secondary to marriage, husband and children. These expectations are reinforced by those of peers, school counselors, church, and the media, with the result that females' career aspirations are lower than males, while their lack of self-confidence is greater. Nonetheless, an important element in professional women's socialization to work is a high degree of achievement motivation (French & Lesser, 1964; Stein & Bailey, 1975).

While traditional views dictated that work for women be confined to "Kinder, Kuche, and Kirche," non-traditional behaviors have nonetheless been exhibited by women. The economic conditions of recent decades have helped to increase women's participation in the labor force, thus increasing the pool from which those with management potential could emerge. Leadership as an expression of achievement, and leadership in the professions in particular, represent incursions by women of talent into exclusively male-dominated domains. Such women and the atypical patterns they have followed (e.g. remaining single and/or childless) are of interest for a number of reasons. Not only have they overcome external factors that have loomed overwhelmingly as barriers to success, but they have also demonstrated bytheir achievement that they have overcome and reconciled internal factors that also limit success (Hennig & Jardim, 1977). Such cases of achievement in sex-atypical environs need further exploration and attention with regard to their origins, expression and consequences.

In order to better understand the career patterns that professional women and men have followed, research in the following areas will be reviewed: (1) achievement motivation issues; (2) leadership as an expression of achievement, and (3) factors which affect the socialization of women to work in high levels of the professions. These areas in particular represent the most atypical achievement behaviors

for women in worlds dominated by men.

Achievement Motivation Issues:

The motive to achieve has been defined in a number of ways. Biological theories have defined achievement as an instinct or drive. Social psychological theories have defined it as an acquired need learned in social interactions. Humanistic psychological theories defined achievement as part of the self-actualizing process. Major contributors to theories of achievement motivation include McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953), McClelland (1955), DeCharms, Morrison, Reitman and McClelland (1955) and Atkinson and Feather (1966).

The methods traditionally used to measure the achievement motives of women have been problematic and have revealed differences when compared with men (Stein & Bailey, 1975). Projective tests using male-oriented stimulus cues produced inconsistencies in female subjects' scores (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953). Such inconsistencies may be the result of responses to sex-role stereotypes, and not of actual achievement behaviors. After high school, girls' achievement behavior drops in all but the domestic area. Factors affecting females' lowered achievement motivation scores may include strong affiliative ties, parental overhelp which may inhibit development of mastery and ability to withstand frustration, and use of projective and competitive measures which do not adequately measure females' achievement orientation.

That women who were gifted psychologists were more similar in achievement orientation to academic men than to adult women in general, suggests greater within-sex differences than across-sex differences (Bachtold & Werner, 1970). Differences in attributions made by males and females suggest that females are more likely to believe their success is due to luck or chance which are changeable, whereas males may believe their success is due to native ability which is stable. The reverse is true for attributions for failure in that females are more likely to believe failure is due to their lack of ability, a stable trait, but males are more likely to believe it is due to chance or lack of effort, both of which may change (Dweck, 1975a, 1975b; Dweck & Bush, 1976; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973). Research suggests that attributions are powerfully linked to the perceived sex-appropriateness

of the task. Girls consistently underestimate their future achievement expectancies, while boys overestimate theirs. Even highly successful females tend to see themselves as imposters, fearing disclosure at every turn (Clance & Imes, no date).

Thus achievement motivation for women as for men, is a complex process involving conflicting expectations which operate differently than they do for men. For the most part, research efforts have neglected female achievement orientations, and instead have tried to apply constructs to females which are derived from observations of male subjects. For example, projective tests have been the standard method of measurement, but these should be used in concert with behavioral methods to avoid expectancies that only tap sex-role stereotypes.

Leadership as an Expression of Achievement:

One of the primary expressions of the achievement motive is leadership behavior. Females, however, have traditionally and consistently been absent from both the theory and the study of leadership behaviors, with some changes noted in the last decade (Hennig & Jardim, 1977). In his compendium of leadership theory and research, Stogdill (1974) reviewed hundreds of studies designed to measure qualities of leadership. Leadership studies suggest incredible complexity in definition, purpose, research methodologies, as well as an absence of follower effects or interaction research. In almost every instance, the topics, subjects, and theories involved males and masculine versions of leadership.

Leadership studies have traditionally focused on males in the laboratory and in the field. Few leadership studies have included women as subjects because their numbers were so few in the real world as to make generalizations difficult. Where they have been present, females have been rated higher than males on leadership behaviors and perceived as more socially sensitive and less aggressive than males (Jacobson & Effertz, 1974). Females have tended to yield the leadership role to males in mixed-sex groups, regardless of females' greater level of dominance (Megargee, 1969). They have also tended to be evaluated both on their behavior and the sex of their subordinates, unlike males who were evaluated on their behavior alone (Jacobson,

Antonelli, Winning & Opeil, 1977).

Studies of women leaders indicate that they tend to make late career decisions, describe their careers in passive terms and emphasize self-improvement as critical to their advancement, rather than organizational environment as emphasized by male leaders. Men view their careers in a social context, giving and receiving favors, dependence, loyalty, whereas women view their careers in more personal and individual terms. Women tend to view risk-taking in negative terms while men see it as both positive and negative (Hennig & Jardim, 1977).

Because necessity does not dictate that women achieve in the work and leadership spheres as it does for men, more role options are open to women. One consequence of this lack of necessity is that fewer women overcome internal barriers to success (Damico & Nevill, 1977; Horner. 1975) and face greater external barriers than do men (Ralston, 1974). Most studies of women leaders have relied upon subordinates' perceptions of them as boss, or on attitudes and values of upper management males, attitudes that have been found to be biased because of sex-role stereotypes (Bartol & Butterfield, 1976; Kaley, 1971; Schein, 1973). As women obtain a greater share of leadership positions at all organizational levels, it becomes important to objectively study their behaviors and strategies for success.

Unlike males, leadership as an expression of achievement is not the norm to which most females in American culture have been socialized. Women's achievements have typically been expected to center around traditional values and women's socialization patterns have reflected these expectations. Nonetheless, women have managed to achieve in the professions despite factors which reduce women's participation to work in high levels of the professions.

Factors Which Affect the Socialization of Women to Work in High Levels of the Professions:

Both internal and external factors contribute to the degree and kind of involvement women make in the professions. Internal factors include avoidance behaviors, role conflict, whether to marry or not, early familial patterns, fear of success, limited risk-taking, internalization of sex-role stereotypes, to name but a few. External

factors include the behaviors of others that affect one's professional career, as well as lack of opportunities and outright discriminatory practices.

In higher education faculty studies, single women were found to lead married women by five to ten years in reaching full professor levels (Graham, 1970). In business leaders studies, all of the top 25 corporate women in one study remained single until their late thirties, after which half married (Hennig & Jardim, 1977). In a large sample including over 2,000 women, only 50% of women doctorates had married compared to 95% of the men doctorates (Simon, Clark & Galway, 1975).

Internal factors limiting women's drive to management and executive positions have been found to originate in early socialization patterns, stereotypes and myths about women's work capabilities (Hoffman, 1975). Women have been expected to choose between a family and a career if they expect to rise to the top of their profession and have even been encouraged to do so (Brothers, 1978). This may help to explain the presence of role-conflict. Such factors may have helped produce a self-fulfilling prophecy in that women internalized cultural beliefs which expected them to choose between family and career, rather than have both. External factors leading to reduced participation of women at high levels of the professions have included outright discrimination (Ralston, 1974), different sex-role expectations by male spouses than by female spouses (Walsh, 1977), biased attitudes by males toward dual-career women (Kaley, 1970), and fears of outperforming one's mate in the exercise of power or in remuneration (Poloma, 1970).

Given these differences in the socialization to work and career patterns between women and men, we might expect different processes and outcomes in all of the professions, including higher education administration. The next section will focus on those characteristics of higher education administrators.

Characteristics of Higher Education Administrators:

The administration of institutions of higher education has been and continues to be dominated by males at all levels and in all kinds of institutions. This review will include the following areas: (1) Number of women in higher education administration and where they are located and in what kinds of positions, (2) Demographic factors, (3) Perceptions and evaluations of their work, (4) Skills of Mid-Level Managers, and (5) Problems and issues.

Number and Location of Women in Higher Education: Although the number of women senior administrators increased 90% during the period 1975-1983, the actual number is still quite small - an average of 1.1 per campus in 1983, compared to .06 in 1975 (Administrator, 1985, p.3). Only as students have females begun to outnumber males, according to most recent enrollment statistics at the undergraduate level. Although a woman may make it to the presidency in higher education administration, it is more likely that she will be found in middle and low levels of academic administration (Digest of Education Statistics, 1978; Howard, 1978). Women constitute a distinct minority of presidents (6%), chief academic officers (12%), chief business officers (5%), chief development officers (8%), deans (18%), and full-time faculty (25%). Salaries and ranks held by women were found to consistently lag behind those for men (Kreps, 1975).

Women in higher education have tended to be clustered in entry and middle-level administrative positions, often dealing with women's issues and programs. In their study of job change and stability among academic administrators, Moore and Sagaria (1982) found that men held proportionally more line positions than women, while the near reverse was true for staff positions. Men tended to be slightly older than women in both line and staff positions, and had married much more frequently (over 90%) than women (50%). In their study of line positions, 15% more

men had earned the doctorate (a total of 89.7%) than women (a total of 74.2%). In staff positions, 7.5% more men had earned the doctorate (a total of 69.4%) than women (a total of 61.9%). Moore and Sagaria noted that virtually all women respondents who had assumed their current administrative position from outside the state had earned doctorates. With respect to rank, twice as many women as men had no academic rank at all. Both men and women staff personnel have found the most opportunities in research and doctorate-granting institutions, but overall, men dominate the staff positions in all but the liberal arts college. For men and women line personnel, men have more opportunity in comprehensive colleges and universities and women fare better in the liberal arts colleges and universities. Since community colleges were not included in their study, it is not possible to determine comparable gender percentages for line and staff positions, although larger numbers of females might be expected since there are larger numbers of women teaching at community colleges and thus in the pool of potential administrative talent.

Demographic Factors: The administrative positions most frequently held by women and minorities were registrar, librarian, and director of financial aid, all mid-level positions, according to Moore (1983). The three positions held by the greatest number of men were president, chief business officer, and registrar. Moore's Leaders in Transition Study found that women comprised 13.8% of the deans, over half of whom were in the fields of nursing, home economics, arts and sciences, and continuing education. She also found that men were more likely than women to hold new positions, to have tenure, and to have achieved the rank of full professor. Men were also more likely to be married (87.8%) than women (43.7%), and to hold the doctorate (87%) than women (13%). Moore (1982a) also found that women, more than men, reported mentor relationships, were seeking a job change, and held more of their institutional degrees and

previous positions from the institutions where they were currently employed - a form of 'inbreeding.'

Perceptions and evaluations of their work: In a national study of four levels of academic administration, 561 respondents answered questions related to self, family and career issues (Mark, 1982). Females comprised 55% of the sample and indicated significantly higher scores than male counterparts on 'self-orientation' scales, greater amount of conflicts and life crises. Females also reported that their careers were more important to them than males, perceived their careers in more positive terms than males, had greater limits on job mobility than males, and perceived their careers to have more positive consequences than did males.

Skills of mid-level managers: An examination of the positions most often held by women at white coeducational institutions indicates that the top three are director of the bookstore, director of the library, and director of affirmative action (Sagaria, 1985). Thus, these mid-level positions require skills that "provide coordination and supervision of institutional activities, expertise and support for facilitation of the teaching, service and research functions" (Sagaria, 1985, p. 20). She also notes that these mid-level administrative positions require specialized skills "that can be translated into definable terms by applying more objective criteria such as changes in revenues generated by the administrative unit or an increase in enrollment" (Sagaria, 1985, p.20). On the other hand, she goes on to say that:

> "senior level positions such as president, chief academic officer, and dean of a college - positions most often held by men - often are characterized by generic and amorphous qualities like leadership or the ability to work with others, skills which are less easily translated into definable terms and for which subjective criteria such as ease of communication or how comfortable one feels toward a person have primacy" (Sagaria, 1985, p. 20).

She notes that the mid-level positions have responsibilities that are less likely than senior-level positions to obscure differences

between competence as denoted by adequacy of skills and acceptance as denoted by personal approval. Therefore, larger numbers of women than men are more likely to be hired when objective criteria are applied with an emphasis on competence as adequacy of skills. On the other hand, she suggests that men are more likely to be hired when somewhat more subjective criteria are applied (Sagaria, 1985, pp. 20-21).

Sagaria also found that the women in her study had successfully compensated for their exclusion from informal administrative learning opportunities by drawing upon more structured experiences such as serving on institutional committees, attending graduate school, and completing inservice training opportunities (Sagaria, 1985, p.29).

The behaviors illustrated in handling their managerial roles by a majority of female and male administrators were more similar than dissimilar in an unpublished doctoral dissertation using a matched pairs design of thirty subjects and indepth interviews (Barrax, 1984). Only in the handling of their interpersonal roles did one pattern of difference emerge. Most men demonstrated indirect means in persuading others to act, while only one woman discussed this behavior.

The conflict management styles of men and women administrators from three private liberal arts colleges in Pennsylvania were compared to groups from business and government in another unpublished doctoral dissertation (Revilla, 1984). Results indicated no significant differences between male and female conflict management styles. These higher education administrators competed and collaborated less and compromised and avoided significantly more than the business and government groups. Conflict management styles of higher education administrators were more influenced by the amount of time they had spent in administration than by any other variable (Revilla, 1984).

Samuelson (1984) investigated the relationship between gender and interpersonal communications ability of 262 mid-level managers in California community colleges in an unpublished doctoral dissertation. While males and females were similar in their interpersonal communications, female mid-level managers were significantly more competent in the two scales of 'awareness' and 'perceived acceptance' (from the Interpersonal Communication Inventory, Samuelson, 1984).

Problems and issues: This brief summary of the research on the characteristics of higher education administrators suggests that quantitative differences do exist, with women occupying fewer positions than men at every level of higher education administration, although women are more likely than men to be clustered at middle-level and entry-level positions than at upper-level ones. While some behavioral style differences were noted, for the most part women and men did not differ in the behaviors they exhibited in the execution of their responsibilities as higher education administrators. Differences between women and men were found in marital status, educational degree obtained, tenure, rank, salary, opportunity and training.

Internal factors limiting women's activity in administrative positions also operate and include reduced leadership aspirations, unwillingness to accept increased responsibilities due to family commitments, and deliberate curtailment of professional achievement due to family demands. Major external problems faced by administrative women include a lack of qualitative opportunities, absence of or a limited informal support network through which job openings and information could be shared, and outright sex-discrimination in hiring (Cunningham, 1970; Gordon, 1979; Jackson, 1979; McMillin, 1972; Palley, 1978; Poloma, 1970; Ralston, 1974; Stent, 1978).

These problems are part of the climate and culture of higher education institutions. They are described as external rather than internal since changes within an individual mid-level manager will not alter the environment in which she or he works. Rather, the entire environment - its culture, receptivity, supports, constraints and limitations - must be understood and accounted for as part of the interaction between person and place and time. This interaction will afford a more complete picture of how gender issues operate in mid-level management in higher education institutions.

Characteristics of the Institutional Climate and Their Effect on Gender:

The climate of an institution of higher education is, in part, a function of its size, its type (research-university-doctorate-granting, comprehensive four-year college, comprehensive community college, etc.) and the kind of control under which it operates (public, private,religious-affiliation, for-profit, etc.). Further, an institutional climate involves its history, governance structure, fiscal health, its reputation, its exemplars (heroes, heroines), its mission, values, beliefs, customs, rituals and traditions. All of these factors and more operate to affect the institutional climate in addition to the personalities and age of those who manage and lead the institution. All and more of these factors may differentially affect everyone who is associated with the institution - from students, to faculty, to administrators. Specifically, the manner in which these characteristics of institutional climate operate on middle managers and gender specifically has been studied rarely. In fact only 50 citations were found in 1979 on women administrators in higher education (Moore & Wollitzer, 1979). However, the effect of climate on gender may be inferred from a broader spectrum of research conducted within and outside of higher education.

The following topics reviewed in this section touch upon climate and gender issues, and move from the general to the specific to the future:

1. Cultural spheres affecting academic life and the use of historical analysis to understand the power that brought about changes.
2. An institution's internal personnel procedures for equity, selection, hiring, stereotyping, and mentoring.
3. How the institution deals with problems, issues, and changes - a future perspective.

Cultural spheres affecting academic life: Four cultural spheres affect academic life according to Masland (1985): the specific academic disciplines, the academic profession in general, the institution's culture, and the national systems of higher education. A fifth might be the culture of specific departments. To the extent that such cultures, historically and currently, include or bar women,

they affect gender issues. Academic disciplines traditionally open to women, known consequently as 'soft' fields, may in fact operate to keep women out of the academy and out of administration according to Cunningham (1970). He found that while there was much competition for a limited number of faculty appointments in the humanities and English departments, there were fewer women applicants for the openings in the scientific and technical areas. These latter are precisely the ones that may have been more interested in appointing women in order to satisfy affirmative action guidelines.

With respect to national systems of higher education, Tetreault and Schmuck (1985) reviewed eight reform reports now dominating educational debate. They found that gender is not a relevant category in the analysis of excellence in schools, nor is it included in the analyses, descriptions or recommendations regarding the employment, or advancement of teachers or administrators in schools.

Historical analysis to understand the context in which change occurred in women's status in higher education institutions in the late 19th century was used by Moore (1982c). She demonstrated how historical analysis could aid in understanding "how formally powerless groups such as women could gain power" sufficient to change their institution (Moore, 1982c, p. 218). She cites four sources of power which were part of the culture and which affected the political climate: (1) structural position or authority, (2) personal characteristics like charisma or leadership ability, (3) expertise as controlling specialized knowledge useful to the organization, and (4) opportunity. Moore notes that though women were outside the traditional and formal institutional power structure, sometimes they were able to create their own communication channels to influence decisions (Moore, 1982c, p. 218). She cautions "that organizational theories that are extrapolated solely on selected, recent examples that lack sensitivity to the context from which they are derived, and that ignore or discount historical uniqueness, are in danger of rapid theoretical obsolescence" (Moore, 1982c, p. 221). The historical context and an institution's culture both contribute to the current institutional climate which in turn bears directly on how gender issues are resolved.

Personnel procedures: The effect of an institution's climate on gender may also be understood by the specific internal personnel procedures for assuring equity in selection, hiring, and mentoring. It should be noted that some of the material in this section draws upon research in public schools below college level.

Institutions that prefer to use internal selections in hiring a Director of Library may consider it a minor administrative position for maintaining the status quo. Thus the position is seen as appropriate for an insider who is non-threatening and easy to find (Mech, 1985). Twenty-nine percent of the midwest's small college library directors (19% of the men and 40% of the women) were selected from within the libraries' staffs. Mech notes that with one exception, this internal recruitment took place exclusively at private colleges which may be under less pressure to conduct wide searches: "An internal candidate is a known quantity with proven administrative competence or potential. Thus internal succession has been recognized as a common means for women to obtain a directorship, although internal successors to library directorships are paid an average of almost 6% less than outside appointees" (Mech, 1985, p. 12). Although women direct 45% of the small college libraries in the midwest, they tend to be found at the smallest of the small colleges. Women tend to hold fewer graduate degrees, are older and less mobile than males. Nationally, the median salary paid a male director is 33% higher than that of a female director (Mech, 1985).

One component of climate is the consistency between affirmative action programs and results. The relationship between the presence of a publicized affirmative action program, the gathering of statistics and the level of representation of women in school superintendencies was studied by Jones (1983). Specifically, the effect of state departments of education affirmative action programs on the hiring and promotion of women and minorities was drawn from survey data from chief state school officers on the representation of women and minorities in school administrative positions. Preliminary

results indicated that a few states with statewide and publicized affirmative action programs had higher than average numbers of women school superintendents.

Institutional climate is also affected by what administrators know about equity issues. Marshall (1983) focused on what public school administrators read in four professional journals from 1972 through mid-1983. Results indicated an absence of reviews of books about women in education and an absence of sex equity issues in articles on equity in general. She concludes that administrative knowledge is shallow and scant and the valuing of sex equity as a priority is low:

> "Policy analysts seeking to explain non-implementation and lack of outcomes should look at the organizational culture. Policy implementation in schools cannot be understood without knowledge of how information is disseminated, how local organizational and societal norms present barriers to implementation" (Marshall, 1983, p.15).

A special demonstration advocacy project for minority women attempted to increase job opportunities in managerial and professional white collar occupations from 1972 - 1978 (Glover et al., 1980). Although outside of higher education, this project is instructive since it attempted to respond to the plight of employers that, "I'd hire a minority woman if only I could find one qualified and available" (Glover et al., 1980, p. 17). The project took a strong initiative and provided advocacy for management and professionally-aspiring minority women with businesses and personnel directors. It appears that the institutional climate for affirmative actions for women and minorities involves passive/receiving behaviors, rather than active, initiating ones.

Even people trained in fair and equal employment practices discriminate subconsciously on the basis of sex according to Kovach (1982). He found gender differences in simulation attempts to deal with and retain employees, using subjects who were college students. Male employees were viewed as worthier of retaining than females, even with identical qualifications. When problems arose, more severe disciplinary actions were

taken against females than males.

> "The willingness to risk losing an employee through more severe disciplinary actions and the lesser effort made to retain females provide insight into the value subjects placed on employees of different sexes. The response patterns indicated that when all else is equal, males are viewed as more valued employees - more effort is put into retaining them and severe discipline is less likely to be used for fear of losing them" (Kovach, 1982, p.63).

The loss of administrative positions by women was studied by Williams and Miller (1983). When departments of intercollegiate athletics have merged men's and women's programs, male athletic directors are promoted to top management positions while women are relegated to assistant roles. Their review of the literature on sex roles and androgyny in a male-dominated field ends with the need to study the entire organizational culture if women are not simply to be forced into male management styles (Williams & Miller, 1983, p. 1147).

Institutional climate may also be assessed by the presence of a mentor program, either formally or informally. Mentoring as a way to improve access to top administrative posts has been noted by Touchton and Shavlik (1978) as important for women in higher education. A theoretical model of a continuum of advisory support relationships is proposed by Shapiro, Haseltine and Rowe (1978) and seven strategies for an effective mentor program are described by Moore (1982b). These strategies were based on a series of intensive interviews conducted with college and university administrators who had indicated previously that they had had one or more mentors. Moore notes that only one-fourth to one-third of college administrators had a mentor (Moore, 1982b, p. 23).

How the institution deals with problems, issues and changes: A future perspective: Part of the climate of an educational institution involves how it deals with problems, issues and changes confronting it. Research on these aspects of institutional climate raise more questions than answers and centers on what is needed, rather than on what is known.

Moore and Wollitzer (1979), in a bibliographic review and analysis of trends in research on academic women ask:

> "...how does the structure of higher education affect the development of women in their various roles as students, scholars and administrators? This issue should include analysis of the dynamics between institutional structure and individual women and its effect on values, attitudes and behaviors"(emphasis added) (Moore & Wollitzer, 1979, p. 19).

They also question the nature of programmatic attempts for provision of equity, along with evaluation of outcomes for the individual and the institution (Moore & Wollitzer, 1979).

Another issue in institutional climate deals with the kind of participatory management that leaders allow. Kanter (1979) suggests that organizational leaders need to design flatter, more responsive systems, as opposed to present, rather steep hierarchies, that allow decisions at relatively low levels in the hierarchy. When the need arises for quick responses and decisions, information needs to be available quickly and spread broadly throughout the institution at the lowest possible level. Kanter notes that, in this model, central authorities will not be able to dominate since "...top-down processes are too unwieldy, subject to too many information distortions, and remove a role from the people best able to make decisions (emphasis added) because they are in greater contact with the relevant sections of the environment" (Kanter, 1979, p.220). Although she postulates this participatory management model as one for the future for all organizations, it can be viewed as a remedy for the problems which beset the current institutional climate. The effect on gender can be inferred - the present top-down authority model in higher education institutions excludes most women. The proposed participatory

management/team approach should include more women since they are concentrated in the middle and lower levels of academic administration.

Kanter (1979) also sees educational institutions fostering powerlessness when one looks at the sources of power and the job conditions that foster it. She suggests a number of options for expanding power. One is the use of problem-solving task forces and decision-making teams that expand opportunity and thus increase power, involve more people in discretionary problem-solving activities that gain them more visibility and recognition - even if nothing changes in their job situation (Kanter, 1979, p. 222). Another is the design of internal proposals in which "Requests for Proposals" (RFP's) on relevant pressing problems go out from top leaders to all organizational members, who can then form teams to bid on the job, with released time appropriately negotiated if needed (Kanter, 1979, p. 222). Kanter believed that career growth and organizational power would be the important issues for educational managers in the 1980's because they are the critical components in effective contributions to an organization. These suggestions for expanding access to sources of organizational power would change the way currently powerless groups, such as mid-level managers and women, operate.

> "Employees are empowered when they are rewarded for organizationally important rather than traditional tasks, get early information about changes or shifting priorities of leadership, and have responsibility (alone or as part of a team) for whole or natural units of jobs, rather than specialized fragments. Vague professional goals need to be translated into measureable statements of results in order to provide recognition for effective workers" (Kanter, 1981, p. 563).

One megatrend popularized in recent years has been the societal shift from an old industrial model which was male-oriented, to a new information model which is open to both females and males. Another shift within organizations has

involved the way in which people learn. Previously there was maintenance learning that involved competition among peer groups in which males engaged more frequently. Now there is innovative learning which requires cooperation among peer groups in which females engage more frequently (Trends & Learning, 1985, p. 5).

Research efforts based upon these projections and directions suggest that gender will be very much an issue. Questions arise to what extent are higher education institutions responsive to new models of power, competition vs. cooperation, innovative vs. maintenance learning? One outcome should be on increasing women's involvement and responsibilities in administering higher education institutions.

This discussion of institutional climate and its effect on gender has involved both a look at what is and what may yet be possible. The next section will discuss methodological issues and alternative research approaches that may help fill the wide gap in our understanding of mid-level educational managers.

Methodological Issues

A number of issues exist in the methodology of research efforts directed at understanding the mid-level manager's role in institutions of higher education. When the issue of gender is added, these methodological issues become compounded. These issues include, but are not limited to, subjects used, measures employed, kinds of comparisons made, settings, a focus on traits, demographic factors, behaviors studied, and interaction of role of culture of the institution.

Subjects: Major issues regarding subjects involved age (e.g. whether college student or adult) and experience (e.g. no work experience, intermittent work experience or continuous full-time work experience). Both age and experience were found to differentiate among subjects on several of the studies reviewed. Both age and experience are involved in how representative the sample is(e.g., How like other mid-level managers who are actually employed in higher education? How narrowly defined is this group? What rate of return did experiments obtain?)

Experience of subjects varied in the studies reviewed from those with no work experience to a life-time of continuous full-time employment. Obviously, work had different meaning to subjects with such a range of experience. Women mid-level managers with several years of experience are not comparable to college students evaluating the performance of a hypothetical employee in a simulated situation.

Measures: Mid-level managers with a great deal of experience have been studied, as well as college students with hopes for future management or leadership positions. The two groups are not comparable in the behavioral sense. When attitudinal questionnaires and projective aspiration measures are used, it is likely that sex-role stereotypes are reflected as well as expectations about women as managers and administrators, rather than information about their actual competence. A few studies examined mid-level managers actual behaviors. However, most have relied upon subordinates' perceptions of them as boss, or on attitudes and values of upper management males which have been found to be biased by sex-role stereotypes. Behavioral measures and self-reports of women in mid-level administrative positions contributed the most accurate picture of the behaviors and characteristics associated with these positions because they were the most direct.

Comparisons: Studies of mid-level administrators in higher education have involved various levels of comparisons. Administrative level and sex are the two major dimensions along which comparisons have been made. Few studies compared several levels of women in administrative positions and few compared females and males across the same level of management. Typically, female middle managers have been compared with non-managerial personnel (other females). Perhaps there is a greater discrepancy between these two groups than between middle managers of both sexes.

Settings: Studies reviewed have typically taken place in the college classroom or laboratory, college and university staff offices, or the business organization. College students respond-

ing to laboratory procedures and controls cannot be said to operate in the same "setting" as subjects outside the laboratory. The results of naturalistic observations, field studies, and interviews of people who actually hold management positions were not comparable to laboratory results. Administrators in higher education operate in an area colored by the worlds of business and academia. Although many businesses are service-oriented and information-giving, more so now than ever before, colleges and universities have a long history of tradition, rules and ceremonies. Higher education institutions are focused on the development of knowledge, the generation of ideas and the education of individuals who will continue these pursuits and of others who will communicate and apply what is known. Within the university or college, systems for progress or success are based on criteria suited to the purposes of the university. Success is indicated by achievement in scholarship or teaching, not by salary or position. All of this is true for faculty. However, it may be less applicable for administrators, particularly those without rank and without tenure, but with budgets and programs that must balance. While there is overlap between business and educational organizations, important differences remain in mission and process.

Traits: Many studies of administrators have focused on traits and attitudes of the individual subject and use internal factors to explain gender differences (need for achieverent, need for power, self-descriptors, need for dominance, level of androgyny, attitudes toward women, sex-role inventories). Administration does not take place in a vacuum. Behaviors of mid-level managers are affected by factors outside of their control which may have a more crucial effect upon their job performance.

Demographic factors: Studies reporting differences in demographic factors focus on those factors that have been acquired or are ascribed and use these to explain differences in the ratio of males to females in mid-level management in higher education. Some of the more frequently used factors are: marital status, highest educational degree obtained, parental status, number of children, number of siblings,

educational level of one's parents and spouse, occupational levels of one's parents and spouse. While such factors are interesting in looking at differences between males and females, they cannot be regarded as causative, but correlational. Research reviewed in this paper found greater within-sex differences than across-sex differences, with males and females occupying the same position displaying greater similarities than females in a professional position compared with non-professional females. It is important to look beyond gender when we seek to understand how people in different positions behave. It is more likely that the administrative position itself affects behavior more frequently than does gender.

Behaviors: Studies reviewed focused on either real or simulated behaviors related either directly or indirectly to one's job. Simulations generally occur in laboratory settings with hypothetical situations involving hypothetical people. Subjects are usually students (psychology or business school) who are completing a course assignment and who are usually in the last year of undergraduate programs. Comparison groups have included bankers, government workers, housewives, and education majors.

Studies of the behaviors of real-life administrators have involved in-depth interviews with targeted subjects, interviews with subjects' subordinates and occasionally their supervisors. More often, actual administrative behaviors have been inferred from their attitudes, responses to research instruments and interviews. Career paths have been tracked and professional development opportunities noted. It would seem that these approaches to studying the behaviors of actual administrators yield more accurate pictures of the nature of the job, its challenges and problems.

Interaction of culture of institution: Culture has many components and would be expected to exert a powerful influence on the behaviors of mid-level managers. Such culture has been alluded to, but not studied in depth in the research on higher education. Culture has an interactive effect, along with traits and behaviors, that produces experiences which may differ for groups of women compared to groups of men. The

problem of the "match" deserves closer attention. That is, how good a fit is there between the goals, values, style and personality of the manager and the goals values, style and culture of the institution. When women succeed as mid-level managers, perhaps their success is due to a good match between these factors. And conversely, when women and men do not succeed, perhaps their failure is also due to a poor match. Research attention to this issue has been rare.

In order to study the interaction of culture and other factors, one needs to be able to measure culture. Kanter's (1977) approach through interviews and research instruments was comprehensive, although conducted in a business setting. When looking at culture, it would be important to look at the department level, as well as that of the entire institution. Often rules and procedures exist that are "unwritten" - you only hear about them after they have been violated. Perhaps responses to changes within the institution might be a measure of culture. Questions might include: what has changed? How did the change occur; what was the process? Who was involved? Who were the heroes, heroines, villains? What is the mythology of the organization? What events do people remember; what are event-markers? What image is conveyed and maintained by the institution? What is the nature of the rituals, beliefs, values? These are some of the issues that need to be addressed as a whole in the study of higher education and specifically, as they affect and impinge on the work of mid-level managers. One might expect that it is at this level that the greatest smount of tension might be expected from these forces, especially in times of scarce resources. Possible sources of measure might include:

1. the image as presented in publications
2. the image presented in policies and procedures
3. measures from rituals - who is involved, who isn't
4. what process is used to deal with special events - a Team Evaluation visit, an enrollment decline
5. what are the institution's priorities - those stated and those not stated, but understood
6. what is the perception of the processes by those

involved (allocation of resources).

Other indirect evidence of culture might include attitudes toward equity issues as revealed in the professional journals subscribed to and the content and focus of these. Another would be to examine the pattern of "derailments" that have occurred at the institution: who failed, why, when and how. The importance of this line of study would be in the reasons given by the person and by the institution. Previous research suggests that females tend to internalize their failures, while males tend to externalize theirs.

Suggestions for Further Research:

While a number of issues have been raised for further research, these have been concerned with methodological factors. This section will focus on those areas where there are gaps in our knowledge as it relates to higher education administration in general, and mid-level management in particular.

There has been an increasing emphasis on colleges and universities to adopt the 'business model of management' in an attempt to increase productivity and efficiency. Reasons given for this shift include the success of the Japanese economy, declining resources for higher education and the consequent need to keep in mind the 'bottom line.' Another outcome of this shift is the increasing status and importance of the business managers in higher education. The irony of this, however, according to Dill (1982) is that the culture of colleges and universities is more like that of Japanese businesses than of American ones. Colleges and universities should not give away those values, beliefs and rituals that contribute most to the life of the organization. Rather, research should look at how these factors contribute to individuals job performance.

Many academic administrators come from the ranks of the faculty and usually have little or no training for their new jobs. Research attention should be directed at the subtle and not-so-subtle differences between faculty and administrative

positions, and the way in which each is viewed within the institution.

It is important to note that individuals having the same or similar title or job may not in fact be performing the same tasks at different institutions. This raises problems when one tries to study the same position at different institutions - the 'assistant dean' may be quite different at each institution, so much so that titles may be irrelevant. Other ways to tap into the nature of the jobs performed by people with same or different titles must be developed.

A sex-bias in the evaluation of leaders has been found previously. This suggests that care be used in including others' evaluation of administrators, whether real or hypothetical. Observing the actual behaviors of administrators might be the best way to avoid such bias.

Most middle managers and department chairs receive little or no training for their administrative responsbilities. The research suggests that 'on-the-job-training' is the most frequent method for learning what and how to do a new job. In what manner does this 'informal' training occur and who is involved with it? Are there certain kinds of experiences that are more beneficial than others? Women have tended to rely on external sources of professional development to learn or increase their skills. Are there informal systems within the organization that could be tapped and studied more directly than they have been? (Dill, 1984).

Several authors have pointed out that the issues that affect middle managers are a function of their position, location within the institution, power, etc., rather than gender alone. More research into the nature of power in higher education institutions needs to be conducted to see if Kanter's (1977) findings apply.

What is the relationship between academic skill or background and interpersonal behavior, conceptual behavior, and overall management success? Such a relationship could be an important implication for management selection, training and development, according to Dill (1984).

Finally, on a metatheoretical level, Wittig (1985) examined the dilemmas in the psychology of gender and described them as: (1) the tension between scholarship and advocacy, (2) scientific vs. humanistic values in the choice of methods and procedures, (3) conflicting perspectives on the legitimacy of the psychology of gender as a psychological discipline, and (4) bias in the conduct of inquiry. She concludes with the need for:

> "...knowledge of individuals' cross-situational similarities as well as of the effects of situations on individuals if we are to understand the reciprocal causation that characterizes persons in situations. Both are needed to understand developmental processes .... Both approaches to the psychology of gender challenge the social structure within their respective strategies" (Wittig, 1985, p. 809).

Gender is both a cause and consequence of the social structure according to Wittig (1985) and is no less true for the culture of higher education administration than it is for the rest of society.

References

Administrator: The Management Newsletter for Higher Education, Volume 4, Number 22, November 11, 1985.

Atkinson, J. W. and Feather, N. T. (Eds.) A theory of achievement motivation. New York: John Wiley, 1966.

Bachtold, L. M. and Werner, E. E. Personality profiles of gifted women: Psychologists, American Psychologist, 1970, 25(1), 234-243.

Barrax, J. D. The organizational behavior of selected female and male administrators in three university settings, (Doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 1984). Dissertation Abstracts International, February 1985, Volume 45, Number 08.

Bartol, K. M. and Butterfield, D. A. Sex effects in evaluating leaders, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1976, 61(4), 446-454.

Broschart, K. R. The avoidance syndrome and professional careers for women, Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, Winter 1979, 34-36.

Brothers, J. How to get whatever you want out of life. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1978.

Bryce, R. A. Characteristics of women holding executive, managerial, and other high-level positions in four areas of business, (Doctoral dissertation, Colorado State College, School of Business, 1969). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1969-1970, 4216-A. (University Microfilms Number 70-7107).

Clance, P. R. and Imes, S. A. The imposter phenomenon in high achieving women: dynamics and therapeutic intervention. unpublished manuscript, Georgia State University, no date.

Cunningham, R. M. Women who made it offer insights (some unintended) into their problems, College and University Business, February 1970, 48(2), 56-61.

Damico, S. and Nevill, D. The highly educated woman: A study in role conflict, Women in Schools and Society: Council on Anthropology and Education Quarterly, August, 1975, 6(3), 16-19.

DeCharms, R., Morrison, H. W., Reitman, W. and McClelland, D. C. Two measures of motivation compared, in D. C. McClelland (Ed.) Studies in motivation. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955.

Digest of Education Statistics, 1977-1978. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1978.

Dill, D. D. The management of academic culture: Notes on the management of meaning and social integration, Higher Education, 11(1982), 303-320.

Dill, D. D. The nature of administrative behavior in higher education, Educational Administration Quarterly, 20(3), (Summer 1984), 69-99.

Dweck, C. S. The role of expectations and attributions in alleviation of learned helplessness, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975a, 31, 674-685.

Dweck, C. S. Sex differences in the meaning of negative evaluation in achievement situations: Determinants and consequences, April 11, 1975b. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service Number ED 111-495).

Dweck, C. S. and Bush, E. S. Sex differences in learned helplessness: I. Differential debilitation with peer and adult evaluators, Developmental Psychology, 1976, 12(2), 147-156.

Dweck, C. S. and Reppucci, N. D. Learned helplessness and reinforcement responsibility in children, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1973, 25(1), 107-116.

French, E. G. and Lesser, G. A. Some characteristics of the achievement motive in women, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1964, 68(2), 119-128.

Glover, R. M., King, A. G., Greenfield, P. S., and Norvel, P. Minority women in professional and managerial positions, Texas Business Review, 54(1), January-February, 1980, 15-19.

Gordon, S. Women in chief student affairs positions. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Florida State University, 1979.

Graham, P. A. Women in academe, Science, September 1970, 169, 1284-1290.

Hennig, M. and Jardim, A. The managerial woman. New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1977.

Hoffman, L. W. Early childhood experiences and women's achievement motives, in M. T. Mednick, S. Tangri, and L. Hoffman (Eds.) Women and achievement: Social and motivational analyses. Washington: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation, 1975.

Horner, M. S. Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts in women, in M. T. Mednick, S. Tangri, and L. HOffman (Eds.) Women and achievement: Social and motivational analyses. Washington: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation, 1975.

Howard, S. Women in higher education, Good News, August 1978, 21, 66, 68.

Jackson, D. J. Effectiveness of training institute for women administrators: A preliminary investigation. Paper presented at the Eastern Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Kiawah Island, South Carolina, February, 1979.

Jacobson, M. B., Antonelli, J., Winning, P. U., and Opeil, D. Women as authority figures: The use and nonuse of authority, Sex Roles, 1977, 3(4), 365-375.

Jacobson, M. B. and Effertz, J. Sex roles and leadership: Perceptions of the leaders and the led, Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1974, 12, 383-396.

Jones, E. H. Affirmative action and the collection of statistical Data: Their effects on the representation of women in the superintendency, Unpublished manuscript, August 1983.

Kaley, M. M. Attitudes toward the dual role of the married professional woman, American Psychologist, 1971, 26(3), 301-306.

Kanter, R. M. Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1977.

Kanter, R. M. Power, leadership, and participatory management, Theory into Practice, 20(4), 1979, 219-224.

Kanter, R. M. Career growth and organization power: Issues for educational management in the 1980s, Teachers College Record, 82(4), Summer 1981, 553-565.

Kovach, K. A. Subconscious stereotyping in personnel decisions, Business Horizons, 25(5), September/October 1982, 60-66.

Kreps, J. M. Women in academia: Today is different, in L.K. Epstein (Ed.), Women in the professions. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1975.

Levinson, D. The psychosocial development of men in early adulthood and the mid-life transition, (Mimeograph). New Haven, Conn.: Yale University, 1973.

Mark, S. F. Leadership in higher education: The consequences of career commitment,(Doctoral Dissertation, University of Rochester, Rochester, N.Y., 1982).

Marshall, C. Education administration and sex equity: A view from practitioners' journals, Unpublished paper, presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1984, New Orleans, LA. (submitted 1983).

Masland, A. Organizational culture in the study of higher education, The Review of Higher Education, Winter 1985.

McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A. and Lowell, E. L. The achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953.

McClelland, D. C. Notes for a revised theory of motivation, in D. C.McClelland (Ed.), Studies in motivation. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955.

McMillin, M. R. Professional leadership aspirations of prospective women teachers, Journal of the Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, 1972, 20, 63-70.

Mech, T. Small college library directors of the midwest, The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 11(1), 1985, 8-13.

Megargee, E. I. Influence of sex roles on the manifestation of leadership, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1969, 53, 377-382.

Mischel, W. Sex typing and socialization, in P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Carmichael's manual of child psychology, 3rd Edition, Volume 2. New York: John Wiley, 1970.

Moore, K. M. Careers in college and university administration: How are women affected? in A. Tinsley, C. Secor, S. Kaplan, (Eds.) Women in Higher Education Administration, New Directions for Higher Education, Number 45, 12(1), 1983.

Moore, K. M. Leaders in transition: A national study of higher education administrators - Women and minorities, ERIC Document No. ED 225 459 (HE 015 813), 1982a.

Moore, K. M. The role of mentors in developing leaders for academe, Educational Record, 63, 1982b, 22-28.

Moore, K. M. Towards a synthesis of organizational theory and historical analysis: The case of academic women, The Review of Higher Education, 5(4), Summer 1982c, 233-243.

Moore, K. M. and Sagaria, M.A.D. Differential job change and stability among academic administrators, Journal of Higher Education, 53(5), 1982.

Moore, K. M. and Wollitzer, P. A. Recent trends in research on academic women: A bibliographic review and analysis, ERIC Document No. ED 176 618 (HE 011 595), 1979.

Palley, M. L. Women as academic administrators in the age of affirmative action, Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, Fall 1978, 3-9.

Poloma, M. M. The married professional woman: An empirical examination of three myths. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, (Case Western Reserve University, 1970). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971-1972, 564-A. (University Microfilms Number 71-19,042).

Ralston, Y. L. An analysis of attitudes as barriers to the selection of women as college presidents in Florida. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Mississippi, 1974. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1975, 35 (11-A), 6992. (University Microfilms Number 75-10,687).

Revilla, V. M. Conflict management styles of men and women administrators in higher education. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, (University of Pittsburgh, 1984). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1984, 45(6).

Sagaria, M. A. D. The managerial skills and experiences of men and women administrators: Similarities and differences, Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 5(1), Spring 1985, 19-30.

Samuelson, J. L. The relationship between gender and the interpersonal communication skills of midlevel managers in California community colleges, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, (University of San Francisco, 1984). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1984, 45(4).

Schein, V. E. The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1973, 57(2), 95-100.

Shapiro, E. C., Haseltine, F. P., and Rowe, M. P. Moving up: Role models, mentors and the patron system, Sloan Management Review, 1978, 51-58.

Simon, R. J., Clark, S. M. and Galway, K. The woman Ph.D.: A recent profile, in M. T. Mednick, S. Tangri, and L. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and achievement: Social and motivational analyses. Washington: Hemisphere Publishing Corp., 1975.

Stein, A. H. and Bailey, M. M. The socialization of achievement orientation in females, in M. T. Mednick, S. Tangri, and L. Hoffman (Eds.), Women and achievement: Social and motivational analyses. Washington: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation, 1975.

Stent, A. Academe's new girl network, Change Magazine Reports, June/July 1978, 18-21.

Stogdill, R. M. Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research. New York: The Free Press, 1974.

Tetreault, M. K. and Schmuck, P. Equity, educational reform and gender, Issues in Education, 111(1), Summer 1985, 45-67.

Touchton, J. and Shavlik, D. Challenging the assumptions of leadership: Women and men of the academy, in Developing and evaluating administrative leadership, New Directions for Higher Education, Volume 6, Number 22. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1978.

Trends and Learning, Volume 2, Number 11, Summer 1985.

Walsh, M. R. Doctors wanted: No women need apply. New Haven: Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1977.

Williams, J. M. and Miller, D. M. Sex-role orientation and athletic administration, Sex Roles, 9(11), 1983, 1137-1148.

Wittig, M. A. Metatheoretical dilemmas in the psychology of gender, American Psychologist, 40(7), July 1985, 800-811.